1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

who practise in Secundrabad and Hyderabad, and a few even go to the well-equipped hospitals for prolonged treatment of difficult and persistent diseases. However, for the majority of the population the only medicines used for ordinary ailments are the inexpensive indigenous herbs and drugs which are locally available.

The local post office, under one of the village schoolmasters, serves Shamirpet and a large number of adjoining villages. The system of mail distribution in the countryside is very defective. Often the village postman takes a month or even more to reach a village on his periodic rounds. Letters are generally delivered personally to people who come to the post office for them, or they are handed to a co-villager who happens to visit the post office, for further transmission.

The police station at Shamirpet is in charge of a sub-inspector and has a strength of two head constables and twelve constables. This force is responsible for the maintenance of law and order in the villages under its jurisdiction. The police keep an eye on all doubtful characters, organize regular patrols of the villages and through the subordinate officials keep themselves informed of local developments. Their official records register all births and deaths, which must be reported by the inhabitants of the village.

As the tank is more than a mile from the village, the people use well water for domestic purposes. In respect of wells, Shamirpet has been very unlucky. Out of a total of thirty-three wells within the village limits, there are only three which yield good, drinkable water, the water of all other wells being brackish and unpalatable. Most people are therefore able to use sweet water only for drinking and cooking, whilst clothes and household utensils are washed in brackish water. The outlying wards of the Malas and Madigas are more fortunate in this respect, for their wells, situated at a distance of about half a mile from their respective colonies, yield 'sweet' water. In the summer months there is often an acute scarcity of drinking water in the village, and at this time large crowds of women gather at the few sweet-water wells waiting patiently to fill their many brass and earthen pots. This time of enforced waiting is spent in gossiping, in exchanging news and often in relating the latest scandals.

The sanitation of the village is the responsibility of the Yetti Madigas, whose traditional duty it is to sweep the street and lanes; in return for the service, the government grants them the use of certain rent-free lands. 27

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

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3*a*. Shamirpet from a hill outside.

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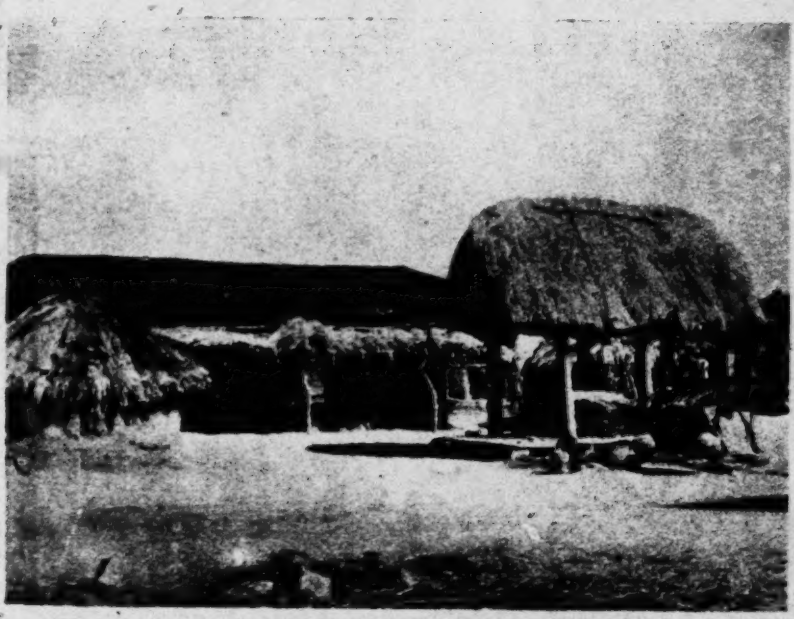

3*b*. The Village Well.

[Facing p. 32]

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

THE SETTING

361 Three miles to the north on the Hyderabad–Karimnagar road
312 there is another village, about as large as Shamirpet. It is called
578 Aliyabad. It has some rich and influential Muslim and Hindu agriculturists among its residents who share with those of Shamirpet the waters of the Shamirpet tank for irrigation purposes. This system is not very satisfactory and the two villages have numerous complaints against each other. There is a keen rivalry between the two, and every two or three years the tension and passions of the people rise to such an extent that there is danger of a breach of peace and of rioting. The residents of Shamirpet do not think much of the people of Aliyabad, and the latter heartily reciprocate their dislike.

671 People living in different villages have very few occasions on which to meet each other as a whole. There are no common ceremonies and functions in which several villages participate. To a certain extent caste ceremonies provide opportunities for inter-village meetings; but the most common meeting-places for people belonging to the nearby villages of the same area are the markets and fairs.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AWI India
Telugu AWI7

311 covers over 14,000 sq mls, largely on the indeterminate En marches of the [312] region. Irrigation, though more important than in Maharashtra, accounts for only 8–9% of NSA and is over 60% from tanks. Fig. 136 brings out some points of the Maharashtra/Telangana contrasts, the Districts selected being comparable in area, while Ahmadnagar is not too specialised to cotton. The most striking features are the much smaller proportion of cultivation in Anantapur, and the far higher proportion of 'other food-grains', i.e. the poorer millets and pulses such as gram.

241 There is, however, considerable internal variation. Rice everywhere plays a much more prominent role than in most of Maharashtra, but still accounts for only 7% of NSA: dependent on the tanks, it is the food of the better-off agricultural classes. Jowar has the largest acreage (*c.* 5·4 m.), followed by bajra (*c.* 1·5 m., largely on lighter soils); significantly enough, gram is third with 600,000 ac. Maize is important in some Hyderabad Districts, nearly 10% of TSA in Karimnagar. Oilseeds are the dominant cash crop, approaching 4 m. ac. Groundnuts account for some 60% of this,[27] and in the Ceded Districts play something of the role of cotton in Maharashtra:

	NSA, 1948–49	*% of total area*	*Groundnuts*		
			"Normal"	*1948–49*	*1948–49, % of NSA*
Kurnool . .	2,074	41·5	476	267	12·5
Bellary . .	2,225	61·4	320	324	12·9
Cuddapah . .	1,000	26·3	187	182	16·9
Anantapur .	2,026	47·0	341	372	17·7
	7,325	43·7	1,324	1,145	15·6

Figures in thousand acres; the 1948–49 groundnuts total was 31% of that for Madras. Figures supplied by Mr C. D. Deshpande.

Jowar takes the heavier soils: "In a tract with just the minimum rainfall, 20–30 ins., groundnut is the most valuable kharif crop on light soils, where the soil is not heavy enough for jowar and rainfall not high enough for rice." Cotton has only half the acreage of oilseeds, and except on the black soils of the greater rivers, extrusions from Maharashtra, it is largely limited to the Raichur (Kistna/Tungabhadra) Doab: Raichur and Bellary Dts account for well over half the total acreage. In this area a high proportion of the rain comes late in the wet season; at Anantapur, a little to the E, 8·6 ins. fall in September alone, and July–September inclusive account for 15·6 of a total 27·4 ins. The rabi crop therefore tends to be more important than the

[27] S. Velayudham, "Groundnut in Madras", *IGJ* XXI (1946), 100–12 and 153–73; refce at p. 157.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

kharif, especially on heavier soils which, with the intense May heat and late start of considerable rains, may not be workable till August. While groundnut is the kharif cash crop, cotton is entirely rabi. Jowar is grown for fodder as well as grain; ragi and other millets as well as rice are often wet crops; and millets are sown mixed with pulses, which take longer to mature and are a safeguard against the failure of the cereals. Most of these features point to the general precariousness of the agriculture in the region, which as a whole is a food-deficit area.

Differences of expert opinion in the two states long impeded work on the great dam, 1½ miles long and 160 ft high, being built across the Tunga-

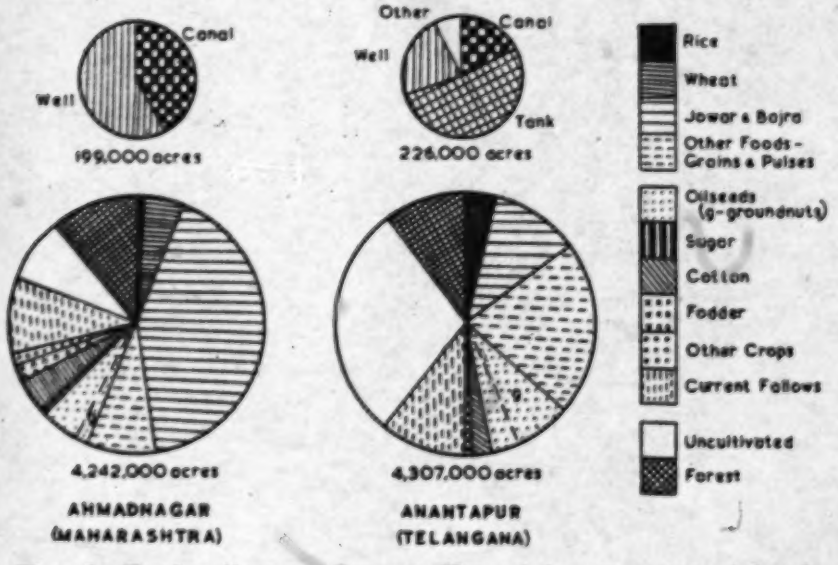

Fig. 136.—The Lava/Archaean Contrast. Upper circles represent areas irrigated.

bhadra: this will irrigate 600,000 ac. in Hyderabad and 300,000 in Madras, as well as generating about 150,000 kW. But the execution of the 7 major and some of the 32 minor projects in Hyderabad, which together might command 3·5 m. ac. and produce 500,000 kW, probably lies in an indefinite future. Terrain and climate impose severe limitations on Telangana, and the unlucky history of the Kurnool project (below, 680) suggests that a cautious policy may be essential for real progress.

Other Resources; Settlement and Towns

The mineral resources of Telangana are scattered and little exploited. The most important production is probably that of Gondwana coal, mined chiefly at Singareni; in NE Hyderabad are some outliers of the great iron

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

state of weight not inferior to that of many a sovereign member of UNO. 631
But large parts of it were still under practically feudal *jagirs*, and the tension [578]
between a Muslim aristocracy and bureaucracy, and the Maratha/Telugu peasantry, was a fundamental weakness. As the only notable survivor of the Muslim Mogul succession-states, it was an Islamic cultural and political outlier fatally isolated from the Islamic bases in the NW and NE. These things were obvious to the casual traveller: as one passes from the lava mesas of Maharashtra the cultural landscape changes as much as the physical. At Gulbarga, on the lava edge, the tombs of the Muslim Bahmani Sultans dominate the gently rolling country, their domes rising like giant bubbles over the flat skyline; on the station platforms the local petty bourgeoisie and bureaucracy, gathered to meet the train and always easily recognisable, no longer wore the dhoti or completely anglicised office clothes, but were clad in the long tight-fitting Muslim *sherwani* coat. But the Muslim hold was thin, and they were a minority of 12·8%. Geographically the weakness of the state was of course its separation from the sea—doubtless not accidental on the EIC's part; hence its interest in Masulipatam on the Godavari delta, linked by rail and only 60 miles from Hyderabad territory by the easy gap where the Gondwana trough breaks the En Hills.

To-day it seems possible that all the Telugu country may be united into an Andhra state, despite the great gap in economic development, and perhaps in economic interests, between the harsh and arid plateau and the paddy-plain of the Madras littoral. It would probably be difficult enough to weld together peoples of such divergent environment; but the major objection to Andhra Desa is not so much the thing in itself as the difficulty of stopping such particularisms from spreading. The detachment of Telangana from Hyderabad leaves Marathwara to be disposed of; presumably there would be a move to attach it to a Maharashtra state. This would involve in turn the creation of Karnataka for the Kanarese, and there is an important overlapping zone between the two [20], while, as we have seen, the Bombay Karnatak has important ties with Bombay. That city itself is the [192]
natural outlet for Maharashtra and is in historically Maratha country; but commercially it is also closely allied with Gujarat, and indeed Gujarati is probably the main business language of Bombay. Clearly to such separatisms there is no end territorially; they probably raise as many problems as they solve; and from an *Indian* point of view the result of creating linguistically homogeneous states might be a grave weakening of national unity. (Cf. below, 682,692).

In any case, the development of the essentially poor land of Telangana 312
will call for great capital expenditure without, perhaps, much prospect of cash returns. The future depends largely on the progress of the great

[20] Deshpande, *op. cit.*, Fig. 20 (p. 86).

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

312 Tungabhadra scheme; but the history of large-scale irrigation here is discouraging, though of course much experience has been gained since the 377 Kurnool failure. With the development of hydro-electricity there may come 491 decentralised industrial development on the Mysore model; but Mysore 433 had a more solid backing in at least some industry, sericulture and Bhadravati iron for instance, to give a base. Telangana is not without resources such as oilseeds and fibres (including sheep and goat wool), and in view of *India's* shortages in non-ferrous metals development of the poor communication net might lead to at least some exploitation of the scattered minerals. But when all is said, it seems likely that Telangana will remain, if not a backward, at least a poor country.

The Anantapur-Chittoor Basins

133 Between the bold scarp of the Palkonda Range and the higher Mysore levels are a series of basins around the middle courses of the Penner tributaries—Chitravati, Papagni, Punchu/Cheyyeru, the last two with a remarkable confluence-gorge in the Palkondas. To the SE the sub-region breaks down to the Nellore/Coromandel plains through the little intermont basins of the Nagari Hills (up to 2800 ft) and through the broader Swarnamukhi valley, which may occupy a fault-trough under the Palkondas. The whole area is crossed by N/S or NE/SW trap dykes, which may also have some influence on the remarkable drainage-pattern.

311 The area is isolated and poor, except in the extreme SE—the Nagari valleys, culturally transitional to Tamilnad. Only 20% of Chittoor Dt is cultivated—less than any other Madras District except the Nilgiris—but the density is **304**, intermediate between the Ceded Districts (*c.* **185**) and the coastal plains (**450–650**). Millets account for over 40% of the cropped area, followed by rice and groundnuts (24 and 14%).

491 There is no urban or industrial development worth mentioning. The 311 Nagari basins are better cultivated than those of the plateau, but even they 133 are not very impressive agriculturally: their flattish floors are broken by patches of sandy soil, almost bare but for a thin grass/acacia cover, and by naked rock exfoliation surfaces, looking like *roches moutonnées* and often used as threshing floors. Around the plain a lateritic piedmont slope fringes the craggy hills, with boulders as big as a small house on the talus slopes. [361] Below the lateritic apron is a better-watered and more fertile piedmont strip, which is in places a solid belt of paddy, the zone of bush and trees along the laterite margin being a favoured settlement-line. It is a strange landscape: fantastic hills, stacked and pinnacled, long ridges capped by massive quartzites, reflected in the still waters of the big tanks with their borders of toddy palms; an eerily attractive picture under iron-blue or grey skies.

133 dicates deposition in shallow but not sheltered waters, and the general lie of the E coast may thus be of great antiquity. The change in strike between the Orissa Hills and the Cuddapahs is very closely followed by the coast.

B7 The hills are wooded and the pattern of relief stands out clearly on forest 132 and population maps (Figs. 18, 30); but the forest is thin, rainfall being 323 only about 40 ins. and the rocks porous or fissured. The few inhabitants are mostly Chenchus, an aboriginal tribe living a semi-pastoral existence eked out by the collection of honey, bamboos, fuel for the railways, and other minor forest produce.

311 The valleys, however, though on the whole poor enough, have a fair 312 amount of cultivation, mostly jowar (25–30% TSA), other milleta, groundnut (16–20%), with some irrigated paddy. The topography in the longitudinal valleys favours the construction of large tanks by bunding a transverse [496] tributary gorge. The main (GIP) Madras–Bombay railway strikes diagonally across the S of the region, and is one of the most interesting traverses 133 in India. The hill country is first entered in the Nagaris, which are the last 361 Cuddapah outliers; here Renigunta and Tirupati are little towns control- 311 ling at once the route up the Swarnamukhi, the crossings of the river, and the col to the N between the Palkondas and Velikondas. Beyond, in the Razampeta corridor, the contrast between cultivated floor and barren hills is exceedingly sharp. The generally arid aspect is mitigated by groves of [342] mangoes around the tanks; houses are stone- or mud-walled, and round beehive huts, striped vertically in white and rusty red, attest the Telugu country. After crossing the wide bed of the Cheyyeru, the line emerges at Cuddapah from grey and arid hills into a greyer plain, a vast ash-coloured expanse largely given over to dry cultivation. The region lies on the margin of the October–December rainfall area of the Madras littoral, and the rivers rise in the dry Mysore Maidan, not in the Wn Ghats as do Kistna and Tungabhadra; hence, even in August, the great streams—Penner itself, Cheyyeru, Papagni, Chitravati—may be spreads of quartzite boulders, shingle, or sand, several hundred yards wide with a line of water a yard across, or even not a drop; while only 90 miles to the N the Ghats-fed rivers are full, great ribbons of muddy water half a mile or more wide.

312 Through the Kunderu valley runs the ill-starred Kurnool Canal, constructed in 1860–76 by a private company which apparently failed to notice the difference in the régimes of Peninsular and extra-Peninsular rivers; the complete, but inefficient, canal had eventually to be taken over by the government in 1882 after two decades of mismanagement. The topographical layout is obviously encouraging, and it is now proposed to recast the whole project, with reservoirs on the Kistna and at Someswaram in the lowest of the Penner watergaps; the project, if carried out in full, would irrigate no less than 3 m. ac., mostly, however, in the coastal plain of Nellore.

Orissa AW13
Telugu AW17

CHAPTER XXIV

THE EASTERN LITTORAL: ORISSA AND ANDHRA DESA

(Regions XXXIII and XXXIV)[1]

Generalities

THE En Littoral forms a strong contrast to the Wn. The lowland is in general much wider, and much of it is a true coastal plain structurally, with in-facing cuestas developed on Cretaceous and Tertiary epeirogenetic deposits; elsewhere it is formed of the great deltas of the Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery. In the S the coastal lowland is no less than 60–80 miles wide, and is backed not by a steep more or less continuous wall but by the broken Tamilnad Hills (Javadis, Shevaroys, etc.) and by the low (1000–1500 ft) plateaus around the middle Cauvery. O T 133

The climatic variation on this 1200-mile coast is highly significant. The N lies full in the track of the Bay of Bengal branch of the summer monsoon and receives *c.* 60 ins.; but Sn Orissa already lies on the fluctuant flank of this great current and receives a lower (*c.* 50 ins.) and less reliable fall. As we move S we enter the largest area of anomalous rainfall régime in the sub-continent, the SE which has its rainy season in the months of the retreating monsoon, October–December. From the great bend of the coast S of the Kistna delta this régime is dominant, and the lie of the coast—sub-parallel to the track of the rain-bearing depressions—contributes to generally low figures. The extreme S, Ramnad and Tinnevelly, is sheltered from the Arabian Sea branch by the high Anaimalai/Cardamom block, while to the N the great projection of the Cauvery delta, low-lying as it is, yet shuts off some at least of the retreating monsoon rain. Here we have remarkably low figures (25–30 ins.) for a coastal area in sub-equatorial latitudes. O T 132 132

The agricultural contrasts which would normally result are to some extent masked by irrigation in the great deltas, but are nevertheless striking enough (Fig. 139). Orissa is as typical a paddy-land as Bengal—indeed in Balasore Dt over 95% of TSA is *unirrigated* paddy, and millets are totally absent. S of the Kistna, however, they generally exceed the area of *unirrigated* rice, and in places all rice; paddy dominates the landscape only where irrigation is possible on a reasonably large scale. There is further the difference between tank- and canal-irrigation, the former dominant everywhere away from the deltas. O T 311 [312]

The primary division, then, is that between the areas of normal and of O T 133

[see cat. 116, pp. 361-362 and map facing p. 162.--ANALYST] 683

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Orissa AW13
Telugu AW17

OT 133

anomalous season of rain; but this is cut across by the deltas and, in the S especially, there is considerable regional diversity. Culturally also there is the great distinction between the Aryan-speaking (Oriya) lands N of Vizagapatam and the Dravidian S, itself divided into Andhra Desa (Telugu)

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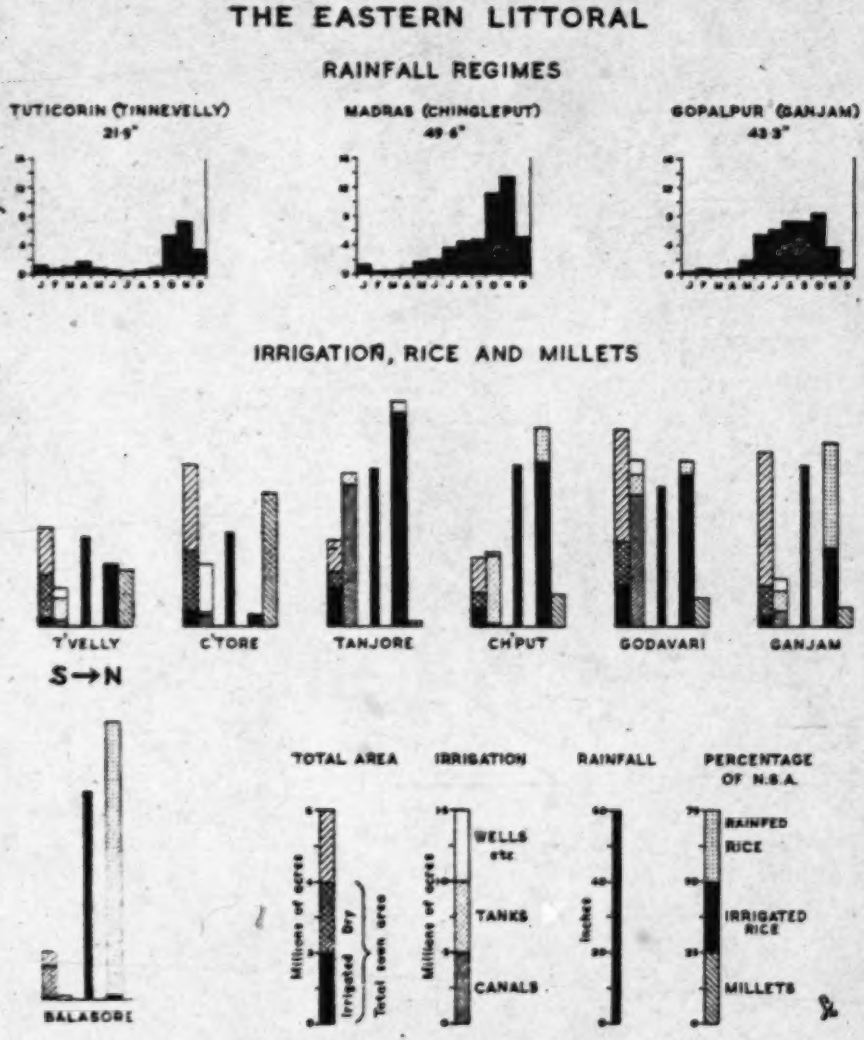

Fig. 139.—The Eastern Littoral: Rain, Rice, and Millets.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
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161 12 m.; dentities increase from Ganjam (420) to E Godavari (714) and then decrease to Guntur (393); beyond the regional limits Nellore, with more Archaean terrain than the central parts of the Circars, and less (and less reliable and well distributed) rain than the Nn, had only 204. On the whole it seems best to treat Ganjam/Vizagapatam and the deltas separately.

(a) *The North*: *Ganjam and Vizagapatam* (*Vizakhapatnam*)

[132] Essentially this is the area with over 40 ins.: the three Sn taluks of Vizagapatam fall a little short of this. The lowland narrows to 12 miles
133 under Mahendragiri, but on either side of this gate are the embayments of the Rushikulya (Ganjam) and the Languliya and Vansadhara (Vizag) valleys. The plains are floored by red lateritic soils near the hills, shading off into black loams and clays; but they are cut up by numerous irregular outliers of the En Hills: thus Vizagapatam itself lies between the 1600-ft Kailana Ridge to the N and the 1100-ft Yaroda to the S; the latter runs out to sea in the bold cliffs (300 ft) of Dolphin's Nose which shelters the port, while in the Nn suburbs of the town are the peculiar Waltair Highlands, *c.* 150 ft high and formed largely by the accumulation, since the Pleistocene, of red loams partly fluviatile and partly perhaps aeolian.[3]

311 Of a TSA of some 4 m. ac., rice accounts for about 1·65 m. ac., ragi
312 390,000, oilseeds (chiefly groundnut) 500,000, the balance being widely
241 distributed amongst millets and pulses mainly. Irrigation is on the whole unimportant, much of it being dependent on temporary mud-and-brush-wood dams across the short rivers.

435 Mineral resources are few—graphite, manganese, kaolin, mica—and hardly developed; a potential resource of some interest in this atomic age, though limited in amount in comparison with other *Indian* occurrences, is the ilmenite and monazite in the dunes and beaches around Vizagapatam.[4]
471 Industrial development—with the important exception of the Vizag shipyards—is again negligible: two or three jute and sugar mills in the Vizagapatam plains. Hydro-electric development in the hills might alter this.

369 Again there is only one real town, 'Vizag' itself (108,042), which has
[504] developed considerably since the opening of the railway up the Languliya
316 valley to Raipur and the subsequent dredging of a deep-water harbour in the tidal marshes. The accommodation at quayside is limited, but it is more up-to-date than at most E coast ports. The selection of Vizag as the main shipbuilding centre of *India* is presumably because of its situation as the nearest *ocean* port to Jamshedpur, but it is still a long way round. Ships up
[439] to 8000 tons have been launched. The hinterland extends to Nagpur and the chief trade is in Madhya Pradesh (CP) manganese, and oilseeds and
504 their products. The small ports of Bimlipatam and Gopalpur are quite

[3] See the very original paper by C. Mahadevan and N. Sathapathi, "The Origin of the Waltair Highlands", *IGJ* XXIV (1949), 26–51.
[4] *Ibid.*, *loc. cit.*, 29.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telug AW17

dead, especially since the cessation of coolie emigration to Burma and Malaya. 504

(b) *The Deltas*

These, like N Kanara on the W coast, form an 'overlap' region, the breaching of the En Hills by the Godavari and the Kistna leaving the limits in the hinterland indeterminate where the hills virtually disappear for about 100 miles. There is of course a marked break of grade where the rivers cross the line of the hills—the Kistna, as we have seen, is actually superimposed across the Nn end of the Cuddapah Ranges, and here the gradient is 3½ ft or more to the mile, against 7–9 ins. near the sea. Their discharge is of course irregular; it has been estimated that in high flood the Kistna carries enough silt "to cover daily an area of 5 sq mls to a depth of one foot".[1] 133

[1] *Madras Gaz.* (1908), I. 167.

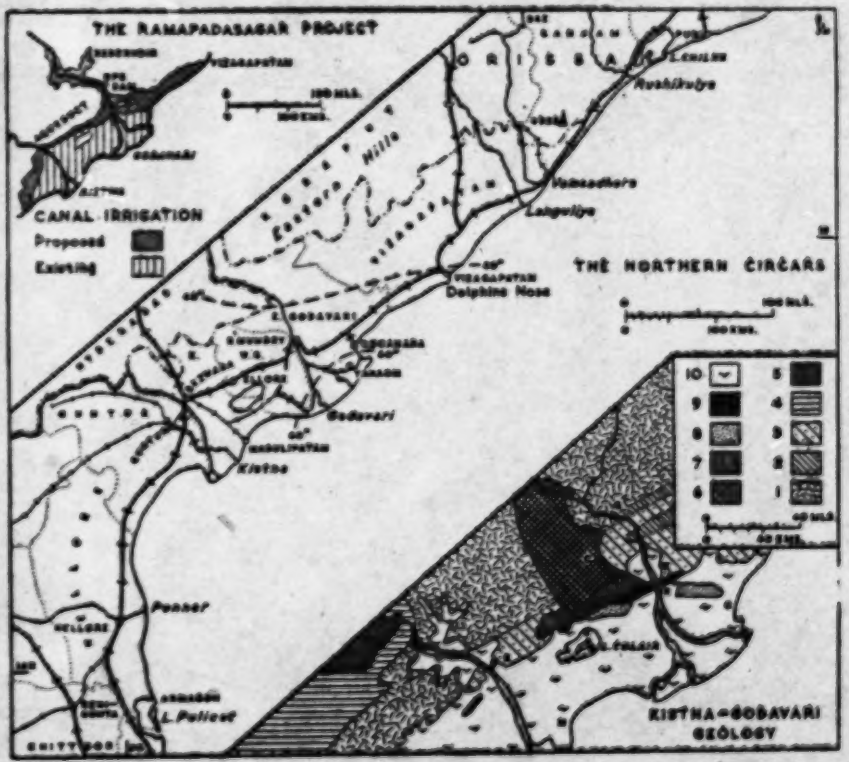

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Fig. 140.—Andhra Desa: The Nn Circars. On main map, dotted line District boundaries—K, Kistna, WG, W Godavari Dts; all railways ST, BG (thick line) or metre. *Geology*: 1, Archaean gneisses; 2, Charnockites; 3, Khondalites; 4, Cuddapah; 5, Vindhyan; 6, Lower, 7, Upper, Gondwana; 8, Tertiary; 9, Deccan Lava outlier; 10, alluvium. G, graphite; K, kaolin; C, coal (doubtful value); other initials towns, as on main map.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
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The worn-down margin of the Archaean hinterland is poor country: undulating plains broken by little hills, with much waste and stony ground; soils are mainly lateritic with some loams. The coast for several miles inland is largely fringed with mangrove swamp (valuable as a fuel reserve) or sand-dunes rising to 30 or 50 ft. Between the relatively negative upland and the completely negative coast lie the rather limited areas of true delta. At Bezwada (Vijayarada), 45 miles inland, the Kistna crosses a low gneissic ridge in a 1300-yd-wide gap; this is utilised for the headworks of canals irrigating about 900,000 ac. The Godavari Delta begins 40 miles inland at Dowleshwaram, where a dam 2¼ miles long feeds canals for another 1 m. ac. (TSA; NSA 800,000). The deltas are of course liable to flood, at times disastrous; and cyclones are also a danger, that of 1864 causing 30,000 deaths and ruining the prosperity of Masulipatam port for ever. In the Kistna delta the land slopes away from the main distributaries at about 18 ins. to the mile, and in that of the Godavari below Dowleshwaram "the country is a vast expanse of ricefields dotted with gardens and villages. During the rains the greater part of this tract becomes one sheet of water, only village sites, canal banks, roads, and field boundaries appearing above it. Later in the year, as the rice grows higher, the dividing boundaries are hidden; and the whole country looks like a single ricefield, the groves around the villages, the road avenues, and the white sails of the boats gliding along the main canals breaking the uniform sea of waving green crop." [1] There is still a certain amount of local traffic, chiefly paddy, on the canals.

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Between the deltas Colair Lake occupies a depression not yet silted up, though constantly diminishing by natural and artificial encroachment; covering about 100 sq mls in the rains, it has at times dried out. Its numerous islands are intensively cultivated, and there is a good deal of fishing.

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Rainfall exceeds 35 ins. only in the seaward half of the Godavari Delta, and the tendency to October maxima is unfavourable to the groundnut and early paddy harvests, while cotton sowings must be late. Irrigation, if not essential, is at least highly useful; its importance is reflected in the high densities (up to 1100 plus) of some delta taluks. The following figures (in thousand acres approximately) give a summary view of the agriculture:

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	Total area	*NSA*	*TSA*	*Rice*	*Total foodgrains*	*Ground-nuts*	*Total oilseeds*
E Godavari	3981	1072	1380	692	1070	4	142
W Godavari	1511	800	1111	697	823	42	115
Kistna	2270	1119	1225	572	877	185	195
Guntur	3684	2092	2384	400	1405	365	395

[1] *Ibid.*, 268–69.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

For the purely delta taluks, of course, the rice proportion would be higher. Tobacco covers some 200,000 ac. in all, the best being grown on temporary sand-islands in the larger streams. Some sugar is grown, but this tall and long-standing crop must be protected from cyclones by expensive fencing with bamboos.

Again mineral potentialities are slight and development slighter. There are two tiny unworked coalfields, of dubious value, in the Gondwanas along the Godavari; graphite and kaolin are worked in a small way, mainly for Rajahmundry paper mills (which use paddy straw as well as bamboo from the hills) and for the small crucible industry at the same town. Salt evaporation at Cocanada might lead to a chemical industry. Industry itself, though very small-scale, is interesting; as well as the Rajahmundry works just mentioned, and the rice and tobacco trades to be expected, there are cement, silk, fruit canning, and vegetable ghee works. Most of these are congregated along the Kistna below Bezwada and between Rajahmundry and Cocanada. Varied as it is, the total is not impressive: the crucible industry has 150 skilled workers, the paper mill a capacity of 3000 tons p.a.; the 77 rice mills in E Godavari employ only 1800 workers, the three silk factories 122; and the total industrial population of this District is only 7200—0·39% of total population, and at that not much below the figure for Madras State (0·42%). Such as it is, this industrial development has yet led to an ominous, if incipient, competition for land in a few tracts between tobacco and paddy; fortunately the region, except for Guntur, has a sizeable rice surplus (about 400,000 tons less 110,000 tons deficit in Guntur); and counting all foodgrains Guntur also has a surplus.[1]

The industrial, and to some extent the agricultural, future of the region will depend on whether or not the great Ramapadasagar multi-purpose scheme is executed; at present financial difficulties stand in the way. The proposed dam, 428 ft high with foundations 190 ft below the river bed, and 1½ miles long, would impound 15·6 m. ac.-ft of water, irrigate for paddy some 2·35 m. ac. of un- or under-developed land, improve the supply to 2 m. ac. already irrigated, and develop at least 100,000 kW; it might also, and less beneficially, trap the silt.

There are a fair number of minor towns. The site-significances of Bezwada (**161,198**) and Rajahmundry (**105,276**) are plain; Guntur (**125,255**) and Ellore (64,911) are trading centres with a little industry. The ports of Cocanada (75,140) and Masulipatam (59,146) are of little use. At Masulipatam large ships must lie 5 miles offshore (weather permitting!) and the half-dozen wharves are three miles up a winding creek; yet in early European days it was a place of great importance, famous for carpets and

[1] This discussion is based on (i) Dr. V. L. S. P. Rao's interesting summary of his doctoral dissertation, "Industrial Problems, Development, and Planning [in] . . . the Lower Godavari Region" (*JGJ* XXIII (1948), 1–15); (ii) V. V. Ramanadham and V. L. S. P. Rao, *Economic Atlas of Andhra Desa* (Calcutta, 1949).

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AWI India
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369 chintzes. The opening of the coastal railway completed the ruin of the
504 cyclone of 1864; yet it is still generally known as Bandar ('the port'). Cocanada is rather better, with many more wharves and jetties; but again the anchorage is 5–6 miles offshore. The ports might—at large expense—be developed as outlets for En Hyderabad, should that backward area itself be developed; but obviously the actively prograding deltas impose severe difficulties on any reconstruction; at Cocanada constant dredging is necessary to keep a depth of 4–6 ft (LWOST) on the bar. In the great days of the coolie traffic, before the depression and the Indo-Burmese race-riots
167 of the 1930s, Cocanada had an enormous migrant turnover.

(c) *Nellore*

133 The traditional Sn boundary of the Telugu country lies along the Tiru-
312 patti escarpment, overlooking the Renigunta basin; beyond is Tamilnad, a country, almost a nation, on its own. The transition is reflected in the increasing importance of tank-irrigation, though this will be changed if the Penner is ever fully utilised. Physically also the transition is marked by patches of marine Jurassics and the coastal belt of sub-recent Cuddalore sandstones; both become more important in the Madras coastal plain (Fig. 141).

133 Most of Nellore is poor country: low peneplains of Archaean gneisses
311 and schists, stony or lateritic and largely covered with scrub. Even allowing for the large part of the District in the Velikondas, agriculture is severely limited. The coast is fringed by a belt of alluvium 2–14 miles wide, between
[339] low-level laterites and the blown sand of the shore. The most interesting coastal feature is the great salt-water lagoon of Pulicat; the islands of the lagoon are used for burning lime from the great shell-banks (this is a main source of *chunam* plaster for Madras building) and salt smuggling is or was important.

312 The Penner and its associated tanks (Fig. 138) are already important for irrigation, and will be more so when the old scheme for an anicut at the Someswaram watergap through the Velikondas is carried out.

135 Away from the Cuddapah Ranges (above, pp. 678–82), the only mineral
471 wealth consists of laterite, building-stones, the coastal salt and shell-lime, and mica from the Archaean schists: output of mica is about 11,000 tons p.a., rather under 10% of *Indian* production. Nellore (56,315) is almost entirely administrative and commercial; it has a little pottery, but other industrial development is practically absent.

631 The Circars form the nucleus of the new Andhra State which never-
197 theless is to be administered from distant Kurnool. This is the first experiment in "linguistic states", and it can hardly be said that its geographical foundations are very sound or imposing (cf. 126, 675, 682).

692 The Village Panchayat Courts were for a group of villages with powers to try cases upto Rs. 200/- without legal practitioners. The Court Members were elected by all adult residents in the village. The number of members varied from 5 to 12 and each member held office for 3 years.

311 Forest Panchayats were elected by the cattle-owners of the village and then the Panchayat elected its President. The Forest Panchayats were allowed to levy fees for grazing and fuel collection, and then they were vested with certain statutory powers. They were under the control of the Revenue Department.

312 Besides these, there were Irrigation Panchayats elected by all landholders of the village who got water from the sluice. These were under the control of the Revenue Dapartment.

871 Then there were the Village Panchayat Schools. Each village with a population of 500 or more could, on application, have a grant of Rs. 180/- for a school-teacher and an initial grant of Rs. 80/- to start a school in the Panchayat area. There were about 800 Panchayat Schools in Madras by about 1928.

642 Last, but not the least, was the jurisdiction of the Panchayat in its present constitutional set up. The Statute in force did not allow the Village Panchayats any control over the Panchayat Court or Irrigation Panchayat or Forest Panchayat, wherever they existed, though Panchayat Schools alone were entrusted to Village Panchayats wherever they existed. These are discussed in latter sections of this chapter.

B. **Finance**: (Table No. 19)

651 **Local Fund Cess**: This was the main source of income to Panchayats in Madras as everywhere else. It was usually 1/6th of the total local fund cess of the Local Boards, soon after the abolition of the Taluk Boards in 1934, it was increased to 1/5th of the District Board Cess. But, the grant of the local fund cess to Panchayats was not based on any rational principle of local finance. In fact, the proportion, each Panchayat got, bore no relation to population, prosperity, poverty or administrative requirements. While a Panchayat situated in an irrigated area got local fund cess as its share, in proportion to the larger land revenue collected from the village. Panchayats existing in the dry areas got positively less local fund cess, in view of the lesser land revenue collected therein.

651
[514] The sanitary agency in the Panchayats should encourage bore-hole latrines, where there are no Pucca Latrines, and if they buy the machine and lend it to the people, it would be a worthy encouragement.

Animal Tax: Tax on animals was a source of income again not very often tapped by most of the Panchayats except in rare instances.

Though the Panchayat in Madras were authorised to collect this tax according to sec. 154 of the M. L. B. Act of 1930, none of them were courageous enough to impose this tax for fear of popular disaffection.

Income from Grass Sales: The sale proceeds of grass on river banks were generally obtained by Panchayats by paying a lump sum to the Public Works Department, as lease amount. This was an income which was usually obtained by the minor Panchayats, as most of the major Panchayats had no grass growing areas within their local limits. On account of the disparity between the lease value paid to the P. W. Department, and the actual return from sale of grass, the minor Panchayats were able to make some profit, which, however varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 4000. (Column 20.)

[312] As the irrigation facilities and fresh water canals and rivers are in abundance in the Delta Districts of the two Godavaries and Kistna, grass grew in abundance on the banks of rivers and canals. This was a source of income available mostly in the minor Panchayats of these areas. In other districts like Vizagapatam or the Ceded Districts, where the land was dry and water facilities were scarce, and where grass was rarely grown, this source of income was not available to Panchayats.

Fishery Rentals: Income from fishery rentals was usually derived by the Panchayats by leasing out or auctioning the right of fishing in the fresh water tanks, pounds or canals in the Panchayat areas. As such, this income was conditioned by the existence of such amenities and could be derived only by such of the Panchayats which had amidst them water sources in case they decided to exploit this income source,

This was a source of income mostly available in the minor Panchayats and rarely in the major Panchayats in Godavari, Kistna and the Ceded Districts, except in places where there were huge tanks or canals. (Column 21.)

Water Supply: So far as the Northern Circars were concerned, there was no acute problem, of water supply but the Ceded Districts presented a most distressing picture of acute scarcity. Even in the Circars the position was not always very rosy. In places like Amalapuram, Bhimavaram and Tuni, which were all fit to be the 1st grade Panchayats, though there was no actual scarcity of water as such and there were plenty of wells, the water was tasteless and the demand was for protected water supply. In some places there were tanks for use of both washing as well as drinking. Wells were separately castewise for Brahmins, Harijans, Muslims and Christians. Even on the rivers, separate *ghats* were constructed usually for the separate sub-castes, as the caste rigidity still lingered in the villages of South India to a predominant degree. 312

In the Ceded Districts, step-wells and draw-wells were more common, but for a whole village to depend on a precarious single source of water supply caused a terrible hardship to the people who had not the wherewithal to find better means or to dig more wells. The Panchayat finances themselves were not quite adequate to do anything in this connection on a large scale.

Table showing the facilities of water supply in some Panchayats

Name of the village	Canal	Tank	Fresh water wells	Blackish water wells	Pot wells
Amalapuram	3	1	10	...	...
Tuni	...	...	25	18	...
Bhimavaram	...	13	4	...	...
Narsapur	Godavari	...	...	...	...
Guntakal	...	...	2	...	...
Ramachandrapuram	...	1	yes	...	...
Mandapeta	Cannal	5	22	..	...
Vuyyuru	...	5	16	8	...
Dharmavaram	...	1	1	...	...
Razole	Godavari	2	7	2	2*
Kadiri	...	1	4	...	...
Kampli	Cannal	...	12	...	...
Rayadrug	...	...	22	...	...
Ganapavaram	...	5	3	...	...
Undi	...	2	17	...	...
Peatapadu	...	5	3	...	...
Akividu	...	4	2	...	...
Betamcherla	...	...	7	...	...
Veldurti	...	...	1	...	...

*For Harijans.

312 In Tuni for instance, there were 25 fresh water wells and 18 blackish water wells. In summer 5 pot ring wells were usually provided to safeguard against insufficiency. It badly required supply of fresh water. There were tank watchers to look after the safe keeping of the water and to guard against attempts to pollute it. In Anantpur there was great water scarcity. Guntakal was another notorious instance of this type. There were only two draw wells for the whole of the Panchayat area and the water scarcity was very acute. The Government had sanctioned a scheme of one lakh of rupees, wherein the Government was to share ⅓rd and the people ⅔rd, but this did not yet come into force. Ramchandrapuram had a protected water supply scheme to meet the requirements of the local area. Mandapeta Panchayat had 5 tanks and 20 public wells, beside separate wells for Harijans. Panchayats in Kistna District again were not equally fortunate in having good water facilities. For instance, Vuyyuru had 16 public wells, out of which some were good water wells. Water had to be purchased at a heavy cost by the public. In Jaggayapeta, there were four draw wells, and six step wells but water scarcity was rampant.

Anantpur, it was said, was notorious for the water scarcity. To add to it, village factions as in the case of Dharamvaram Panchayat led to the stopping of an excellent scheme of protected water supply that was in force. A big tank and a public well served the needs of the water supply there, besides 28 draw wells and 4 step wells. In Kadiri, water supply was purely dependent on draw wells. The tank in the temple had fresh water all the year round, but no efforts were ever made to prevent people from bathing and washing therein.

The problem of water scarcity was most common in the villages in the Ceded Districts. Except Kampli Panchayat near Tungabhadra in Bellary District, Panchayats either big or small like Betumcherla, Veldurti, Kallur, etc. had great water scarcity.

364 **Sanitation and Conservancy**: Sweeping of roads, cleaning of gutters, removing of the rubbish and sewage water were some of the functions which the sanitary department of the Panchayats was expected to take up. The efficiency with which this obligation was met depended upon the staff; the Panchayat was usually capable of appointing according to its ability to pay for these services and this again was indirectly controlled by the local taxation policy. Some of the major Panchayats had their own sanitary inspectors, sanitary mistries, lady and male vaccinators, compounders and mid-wives to look to the local sanitary needs besides the usual squads of sanitary and conservancy staff like the Thotties, the male and female sweepers, gutter-cleaners,

661 653 Even the major Panchayats with overseers and mistries, either left the budgeted plans unfinished, neglecting the roads on the plea that plans were not approved by the District Board or executed them in a haphazard piecemeal way by reducing all the estimates to an amount below Rs. 250/- which they could undertake. Some Panchayat budgets showed expenditure on roads, which were never laid but, when caught, sought to plead that they were spoiled by the time the inspecting authority could visit them. There were frauds in preparing the estimates, in the execution of contracts and in the accounts of the amounts shown as paid in the Panchayat budgets. These shady deals go unpunished for want of positive proof. Minor Panchayats portrayed better enthusiasm in the execution of their public works by the use of communal labour. However, to avoid much wastage of public money by the Panchayats more competent, honest and sincere supervising staff to look to their estimates and execution is essential. Corruption, delay and dilatory tactics should seriously be dealt with. Starting of Government Central Depots for storing and selling raw materials like lime, stone, tar, keel and other materials required for public works under Local Boards would mitigate to some extent the present evil of embezzlements of public funds. A close laison between the District Board and the Public Works Department to tighten up the supervision may also improve the position.

● 312 Though there is no acute water scarcity in the Circars as in the Ceded Districts there is need for providing protected water supply in Panchayats where there are no fresh water wells or to dig more wells where they are inadequate. While the Panchayats have not got resources to undertake this task, the District Boards and the State Government should take more interest.

744 364 Only some major Panchayats appointed sanitary inspectors, vaccinators, mid-wives and compounders to look after public health, scavengers and thotties to clean the roads, drains, gutters and latrines private and public. The sanitary inspectors looked to the enforcement of the Food Adulteration Act, supervision of the slaughter houses, prevention of infectious diseases, maintenance of the public health, sweeping of the roads, etc. with the assistance of the sanitary staff. But many Panchayats were not in a position to undertake most of these functions due to the lack of funds or difficulties in recruiting scavengers and thotties as in the case of Vizagapatam due to the low salaries paid.

231 Slaughter houses were found mostly in the minor and major Panchayats where even the right of collecting the receipts was

26: Rao E-5 (1946-7) 1954 AWI India
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Section IV: Irrigation Panchayats in Madras

PART I

Administrative and Legislative Position on the Eve of Enquiry

A. Structure: Irrigation was looked after not by the usual Village Panchayat Boards, but by separate Panchayats called the Irrigation Panchayats with separate constitution, finance and powers, working under the supervision and control of the Revenue Department and the Board of Revenue. 312

It was difficult to trace the regular historical evolution of these Irrigation Panchayats. The brief back-ground given here was based on the available information in the several Collectorates. It was found that the Irrigation Panchayats as such were very few in number, in the whole Presidency and even those few were to be found only in the Andhra Districts of Nellore, East and West Godavari, Kistna, Anantapur and Bellary. In 1913, there were about 8 Irrigation Boards in Nellore, Sarvepalli, Kovvur, Kavali, Ponnalur, Ravur, Kandukur, Karedu, Gudur and Kota. The constitution of the Irrigation [642] Board was given in G. O. No. 2311 dated 14th October, 1915 as below, as in the case of Sarvepalli. The Irrigation Board, consisted of village elders, was: 1. to manage irrigation under the reservoir; 2. to see that no field suffers for want of water at the cost of another; 3. to get all their difficulties removed by correspondence with the P. W. D. and Revenue; 4. to see that the rules were properly enforced; and 5. to exercise a general supervision over the work of the Panchayat and to guard specially that richer ryots were not benefitted at the expense of the poorer ryots and to supply labour to the P. W. D. on requisition.

The Board should meet at least once a year. Anybody feeling the necessity for a meeting was to inform the head Karnam about it, who would intimate to the delegates.

The members of the Board would elect among themselves a President and Secretary. Their duties were: 1. to discuss in the meetings all topics relating to irrigation of the locality; 2. to convey the decisions by the delegates to be signed by them; 3. to

312 communicate the decisions to all the ryots as well as to Tahsildars; 4. to inspect all the lands; 5. to inform the P. W. D. whenever action is to be taken; 6. to publicize the decision to all parts of the village; 7. to make one among the Board for presiding at the time of the meetings; 8. to treat the decision of the majority as the decision of the Board; 9. in case of equal voting to see that the President shall have the casting vote; and 10. if even on the requisition of the Collector, the Panchayat did not serve water, it would be fined.

The functions of the Karnam were: 1. to maintain a register of delegates; 2. to convene a meeting of the delegates with a notice; and 3. to maintain the attendance of the Board.

The electorate for the Irrigation Panchayat consisted of the Pattadars who would enjoy the water from the sluices and they elected 3 delegates for each sluice.

But when the opinion of the several District Collectors was invited for the advisability of adopting such a system, most of them were not in favour of it.

312 642 The Irrigation Panchayat Act was ultimately passed in 1928. According to G. O. 109, the constitution, powers and functions of these informal Panchayats were: 1. ryots owning cultivation lands and tenants or their nominees were the electorate; 2. Revenue Divisional Officer to convene a meeting of the electorate for the election of the Panchayatdars who would be not more than 5, such that at least one Panchayatdar from each village, served by irrigation source, should be on the Panchayat; 3. the working period was 3 years, but at the annual meeting under the presidentship of the Revenue Divisional Officer any one member can be removed on complaint; 4. the President of the Panchayat was to be elected by them; 5. the meetings of the Panchayat should be held at least once a month presence of 3 members being treated as quorum; 6. the date of meeting to be intimated 3 days in advance in a public place and copies of the minutes of meetings were to be sent to the Collector and Executive Engineer; 7. the District Collector could dissolve any Irrigation Panchayat without offering any reasons; 8. the Irrigation Panchayat would regulate the manner and order in which the wet-lands under the channel should be irrigated, the time at which the supply of water should commence, the period during which the supply of water should continue and the quantity of water to be supplied, the supply let into the channel would be determined by the officers of the P. W. D.;

9. the Irrigation Panchayats should not effect any alterations to sluices or masonary works or make any alterations in the channels or interfere with any headworks; 10. the Panchayat shall be responsible for keeping water over the bund during the rainy seasons; 11. the Panchayat should make good any damage to the bund sluice, head-work etc., resulting from their mismanagement; 12. the Government may sanction a grant for the up-keep of the channels and masonry works; and 13. the Panchayat should maintain an account of expenditure and receipts. 312 642

B. Finance: The Government gave them small annual grants. As these were usually very meagre, the Irrigation Panchayats depended to a great extent on the funds they collected by way of subscriptions from the local ryots for the improvement and repairs of irrigation sources. 651 312

C. Functions: The functions of the Irrigation Panchayat were to see that richer ryots did not get more water at the expense of the poorer ryots, to keep the water sluices in order, to send intimations to the Public Works Department in time and to make representations in the matter of any difficulty. 312

D. Supervision and Control: Irrigation Panchayat supervision was entrusted to the Revenue and the Public Works Departments. They had to submit periodical reports of work to the Tahsildar or the Revenue Divisional Officer who was supposed to be their immediate superior authority.

PART II

Actual Conditions Revealed by the Survey

Irrigation Panchayats were at Brahmanayeleru in Anantpur, Bhimavaram and Cherukumilli in West Godavari, Jaggayapeta in Kistna, Kampli and five informal Irrigation Panchayats at Chinatam. balem, Avinamadugu, Daroji, Haganuru and Sirigupa in Bellary. Palem River Irrigation Scheme, a registered cooperatived society since 1927, would deserve special mention as it was first of its type in the Presidency.

A. Structure: The membership of these Irrigation Panchayats varied from Panchayat to Panchayat. For instance, while Bhimavaram Irrigation Panchayat consisted of 5 members, Cherukumilli Irrigation Panchayat in the same district consisted of 10 members; while Kampli Irrigation Panchayat in Bellary consisted of 7 members, the Irrigation Panchayat of Brahmanayeleru in Anantapur consisted of 4 members,

312 3 from the Village Panchayat and one from the Panchayatdars. Again in Kampli in Bellary and in Brahmanayeleru in Anantapur, the President of the Panchayat as well as that of the Irrigation Panchayat were the same without any detriment to the good work of either body.

[666] **Method of Election**: This was generally by show of hands and the election was always conducted by the Revenue Divisional Officer.

Term: The term of office for the members of the Irrigation Panchayat was 3 years, but for the last 13 years, there were no elections due to war and the same old bodies were in power.

[564] **Caste Composition**: The majority was always of non-Brahmins, more than of Brahmins. There was no system of reservation of seats or ex-officio membership as in the case of the Village Panchayats.

651 312 **B. Finance**: This was constisted of meagre Government grants supplemented in a few cases by the small proceeds from sale of grass, etc. The Government of Madras had made the following sanctions to the Irrigation Panchayats:

1.	Kovvada Channel	... Rs.	30-0-0
2.	Yendaganda Channel	... „	30-0-0
3.	Aya Bhimavaram Channel I.	... „	60-0-0
4.	„ „ Channel II.	... „	60-0-0
5.	Bhaskararao Channel	... „	20-0-0
6.	Cherukumilli Channel	... „	20-0-0
7.	Kampli Irrigation Panchayat in Bellary		nil.

As regards the income of the Irrigation Panchayats, they did not have any other sources than the grants of the Revenue Department annually as mentioned above; and these were inadequate. Besides these, the Panchayats got some income from the sale of grass on canal bunds, whenever that source was available, but this was possible only in the Circars and not in the Ceded Districts. The actual expenditure was generally in excess of finance and the gap was usually filled in by subscriptions voluntary and methodical. Brahmanayeleru Irrigation Panchayat in Anantpur collected at the rate of Re. 1/- per acre on wet cultivation and as. 4 per acre on dry cultivation in its area.

312 652 **C. Functions**: The income of the Irrigation Panchayats was inadequate to meet the cost of their functions which were generally the same as Bhimavaram and Cherukumilli Irrigation Panchayats, Details of expenditure for these were as below.

312 652

Details of Expenditure of Bhimavaram Irrigation Panchayat

Year	Particulars	Rate per Kunta as.	Amount Rs. as. p.
1927	Digging charges ...	2	140-0-0
1928	Digging channels ...	2	128-0-0
1929	Digging channels ...	3	109-2-0
1930	-do- ...	-do-	81-12-0
1931	-do- ...	-do-	57-14-10
1932	-do- ...	1½	48-0-0
1934	-do- ...	1	62-3-0
1941	-do- ...	1½	160-0-0
1944	-do- ...	3	215-0-0

Same was the case in Cherukumilli Irrigation Panchayat as indicated below:

Date	Particulars	Amount Rs. as. p.
3-11-1940	Opening Balance ...	302- 6-8
	Postage charges ...	5- 0-0
	...	
8-11-1940	Costs for digging the channel ...	65-10-0
20- 5-1943	Sell of avenues ...	9-12-0
22- 3-1943	Digging channels ...	98- 0-0
23- 3-1944	Cartage charges ...	105- 1-0
12- 7-1946	Grass expenditure ...	94- 0-0
	Balance	146 -8-0 ,

312 652 651

While in the case of Bhimavaram, the annual revenue grant was Rs. 60; in the case of Cherukumilli it was only Rs. 20. The expenditure that was being incurred by the irrigation Panchayats was far in excess of their income, and the excess money was being collected from the individual ryots as private subscriptions for the improvement of the irrigation channels. This was the case with regard to all the Irrigation Panchayats in West Godavari.

312 651

In Anantapur, Brahamanayeleru Irrigation Panchayat professed to be the oldest and best. It collected irrigation tax at the rate of Re.1 per acre of wet crops and 4 as. per acre of dry crops. Kudimaramat (free labour contribution by the villagers) was in force and Irrigation Panchayat appointed Nirgantis at a pay of Rs. 13, though the

312 651 authorised scale was only Rs. 6 per mensem, to look after the distribution of water.

312 The administrative duties of the Irrigation Panchayats were more of a nature of conscientious execution by themselves rather than a directorial imposition from above. Mostly these consisted of digging up channels, regulation of water by sluices, sending proper intimation to the P. W. D. and the revenue authorities, occasional sale of grass and usufruct of trees on the banks of the rivers and provision of other ameliorative measures to the village ryots. But even this much of an activity was visible only in the villages of West Godavari, while in the Ceded Districts, except in rare instances as at Brahmanayeleru, they were mostly nominal. They functioned well because the members were active. Brahmanayeleru in Anantapur had also the right of appointing its own Nirgantis, but this was a privilege rarely exercised or given to any of the Panchayats.

D. Supervision and Control: The Irrigation Panchayats, also known as the informal Panchayats, were usually subject to the supervision of the Revenue and Public Works Departments.

PART III

Observations

A. Structure: The Irrigation Panchayats revealed features like disproportionate membership in relation to the population, election by show of hands, and lack of representation according to the communities.

[651] **B. Finance:** These were inadequate to undertake any works of public utility. The Irrigation Panchayats had always to depend upon the voluntary contributions of ryots as the Government grants were very inadequate.

C. Functions: As most of the functions were self-imposed there was no need for direction from above. The villagers, in their own interest, discharged their obligations by getting the necessary water supply for their fields in time by digging channels and repairing sluices, etc.

While the honorary services of the local non-officials were available, the enthusiasm could not be properly exploited without giving them the required financial assistance and administrative help like appointment and payment of Nirgantis, etc.

D. Supervision and Control: Both the Revenue and Public Works Departments never took any active interest in the adminis-

26: Rao E-5 (1946-7) 1954 AW1 India
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tration of Irrigation Panchayats. The Revenue Divisional Officers, the District Collectors and the Board of Revenue paid insufficient attention to their dffiiculties. Thus ignored by tbe Government and indifferently treated by the local government officials, the institution of Irrigation Panchayats was still found lingering in the body politic of village life as a relic of tbe ancient system of Panchayat administration, displaying a deep sense of civic consciousness and local responsibility. 3/2

31: Slater S-5 (1916-1917) 1918 AW1 India
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Castes.	Brahman.		Komati.		Kāpu.		Balija.		Dhoby.		Kaikala.		Boyas.		Yekili.		Kumavu.		Mahammadan.		Dommara.		Total.		Grand total.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Under 1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	2	3	5
1—5	2	—	2	—	1	1	1	2	2	1	—	1	3	2	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	1	11	10	21
5-10	—	—	1	—	3	—	—	—	3	1	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	1	8	5	13
10-15	—	—	—	1	3	—	1	—	—	1	—	1	1	1	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	6	5	11
15-20	—	—	—	1	2	—	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	3	7	10
20-25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	—	1	3	4	—	—	1	—	2	—	—	1	7	8	15
25-30	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	1	3	4	7
30-35	—	—	—	1	—	2	1	—	1	1	2	—	3	1	2	—	—	—	1	—	2	—	12	5	17
35-40	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	4	—	4
40-45	—	—	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	1	1	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	3	5	8
45-50	1	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	2	3	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	7	4	11
50-55	—	—	1	—	1	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	3	7
55-60	—	1	1	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	1	1	—	—	2	4	6	10
60-65	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	—	—	2	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	5	3	8
65-70	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	1
70-75	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1

M. = Male. F. = Female.

The population of the paracheri is—men 13, women 12, children 19; 44 in all in 30 homesteads.

—	Family No. I.	Family No. II.	Family No. III.	Family No. IV.	Family No. V.	Family No. VI.	Family No. VII.	Family No. VIII.
	1	1	Age	1	1	1	Age	1.
Men ...	(age 60)	(age 45)	2 [20, 16]	(age 60)	(age 35)	(age 50)	5 [55, 30, 27, 25, 20]	(age 56).
	1	1		1	1		1	
Women ...	(age 36)	(age 30)	3 [50, 16, 13]	(age 50)	(age 20)	2 [35, 35]	(age 12)	2 [40, 35]
Children ..	6	2	...	2	...	3	...	6
Number dead.	...	3	...	...	1	...	...	...

311 *Land.*—There is jungle all round the village, where the cattle belonging to the village are allowed to graze on paying grazing fees to the zamindar.

•312 There are five tanks. Out of these only two are of some size. The rest are small tanks. Even in the big tanks the water stored is sufficient for only one crop.

There are about 20 wells. Water is lifted up in most of them by means of the picottah. Four of the wells have been dug out of hard rock.

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312 There are no other sources of water-supply. There are no streams or rivers belonging to the village. There is one at some distance, but its water is used to irrigate lands belonging to adjoining villages.

311 According to assessment—

651

Wet lands.						Dry lands.					
Rate per acre paid to zamindar.			Extent.	Revenue.			Rate per acre.			Extent.	Revenue.		
Rs.	A.	P.	ACRES.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	ACRES.	Rs.	A.	P.
8	14	3	4·89	44	3	9	2	1	9	11·11	23	7	8
7	12	6	1·57	12	8	2	1	10	9	4·65	7	11	1
7	6	6	0·86	6	6	6	1	7	3	2·91	4	3	11
6	10	9	1·11	7	7	2	1	3	7	13·95	17	6	7
5	8	11	8·35	45	12	4	1	0	0	3·41	3	7	7
4	7	2	38·60	266	6	1	...			...	...		
										Total ...	442	0	4

Inams.

Dry lands.						Wet lands.					
Rate per acre.			Extent.	Revenue.			Rate per acre.			Extent.	Revenue.		
Rs.	A.	P.	ACRES.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	ACRES.	Rs.	A.	P.
2	3	1	1·06	2	3	3	10	15	0	3·46	39	5	10
1	10	3	15·52	20	9	4	8	12	0	5·69	61	5	8
1	6	9	7·90	11	3	8	7	10	6	4·54	34	15	2
1	3	2	3·58	4	4	11	5	7	6	0·85	6	5	0
										Total ...	180	4	10
										Other lands ...	442	0	4
										Grand total of revenue received by zamindar ...	622	5	2

427 *Occupation of land.*—A very small area, 62½ cents of dry land, and 31 cents of wet, belongs to the zamindar himself and is [311] cultivated by a tenant. Such lands are called "kanagi." The rent 241 is Rs. 1-5-2 for the dry land and Rs. 2-11-0 for the wet land.

There are eight ryots who hold land under the zamindar, of these six cultivate their holdings, and two, of whom one is the karnam of the village, let their land to sub-tenants who pay in shares of the produce.

There are thirteen sub-tenants who own no land.

In cultivating paddy, ragi, cholam, sazzulu, and other such grains, half of the produce generally goes to the cultivator, and the other half to the zamindari tenant who lets out his land, all the straw going to the cultivator only, who supplies himself with all the necessaries for cultivation.

But in some cases the zamindari tenant (the pattadar or inamdar) himself supplies one pair of bulls, and ploughs the land, while the cultivator simply helps him in his work. In that case only one-sixth of the produce is given to the cultivator. If the

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station is Kalikiri, at a distance of 10 miles. The nearest commercial centres are Kandur and Kalikiri, where grain, tamarind and jaggery are sold in large quantities.

Economic condition.—The customary rates of wages are—in money—men 3 annas per day; women 2 annas per day; in kind—three measures of paddy or ragi per day and a small quantity of food in the afternoon. The measure is half a Madras measure.*

Or a man may be given two annas and a meal.

Current prices—

Rice	...	...	...	8 local measures for a rupee
Ragi	...	...	...	10 " "
Sazzulu	...	...	...	10 " "
Cholam	...	...	...	9 " "
Tamarind		...	...	As. 2–6 per viss.*
Jaggery	...	...	...	As. 6 "
Chillies	...	...	...	As. 8 "

The village debt is estimated at Rs. 2,000.

There have been no good rains for the past three or four years and consequently there have been successive failures of crops. The ryot has therefore been obliged to borrow money for buying bulls, and grain, and to enable him to pay his rent. For these reasons there is much indebtedness in the village.†

There are only two families who have liberated themselves to a small extent from debt once incurred.

There is no Co-operative Credit Society.

Wet lands sell at Rs. 400 to Rs. 1,000 per acre, dry lands at Rs. 40 to Rs. 60. It is only recently that the prices have gone up. Formerly they were selling at a lower rate, the maximum rate being about Rs. 500 per acre. The rise in price is due to the fact that there are more ryots than land and demand is unsatisfied.

Expenditure on religious festivals.—At one annual festival, called Paleti Gangamma Jathara, about Rs. 60 or Rs. 70 are spent. Nothing has been spent on new temples in recent years and no advantage is taken of the Agricultural Loans Act.

Sanitary condition.—Neither malaria, cholera, plague nor small-pox are prevalent. For ordinary ailments people get themselves treated by two native doctors in Kandur, two others in Somala at a distance of 4 miles and one other there in the village itself. For more serious diseases people have recourse to the hospitals at Sodam at a distance of 12 miles, or at Vayalpad or Piler, at distances of about 20 miles.

Though there are two Muhammadan families they do not observe purdah.

Night-soil is not allowed to accumulate in the village, but the sullage water is allowed to sink into the ground in every house. In some houses there are cesspools where this collects, and pollutes the air around.

For drinking purposes water is got out of a well about half a furlong from the end of the village nearest to it. For other domestic purposes, only two houses, one Brahman and one Kapu, have wells in their backyards. All the others get water from the well above mentioned for all purposes. The water in the two wells mentioned is brackish.

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* It follows that one local measure of paddy weighs about 1¼ lb.; of rice, ragi, sazzalu or cholam about 1¾ lb. A viss in Madras is a little over 3 lb.—Ed.

† In 1917 there were good rains—vide under Gownipalle, Festivals.

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311 *Land*—

	ACS.
Wet land	141·30
Dry land	304·29
Land watered by wells	52·19
Common waste	451·35
Pastures other than waste ... ... }	898·14
Woods and forests ... ... }	

312 There are two tanks, *Kodipalli cheruvu* and *Varadarajulu kunta*. The first is sufficiently deep though not extensive, and the water stored in the tank is sufficient for two crops. The surplus water is allowed to collect in another small pond. There are fourteen wells, all built round with stone; and one stream when in flood affords an additional water-supply.

311 651 *Classification of lands—According to assessment*—

Wet lands.		Dry lands.	
Rates.	Acres.	Rates.	Acres.
Rs. 4-0-0	18·38	Re. 1	304·29
Rs. 5, Rs. 5-8-0	32·38	... ..	...
Rs. 6-0-0	21·24	.....	...
Rs. 7-0-0	20·35	.....	...
Rs. 8-0-0	7·37	.....	...
Rs. 9-0-0	1·10	.....	...

311 *Occupation of land.*—Of the dry land 109·02 acres, of the wet land 31·50 acres are cultivated by the landowners, the remainder, viz., 32·28 acres of wet land, and 272·79 acres of dry land are sublet and cultivated by tenants.

423 There are about 25 non-cultivating landowners. Some hold Government posts, about 12 are engaged in trade; there are between 30 and 40 tenants who own no land, and the agricultural workers who neither own nor rent land number men 113, women 47.

There are two kinds of ownership, inam and patta. All sirkar lands are held by pattadars. The area of holdings of inam ownership is 127·38 acres. The rest of the cultivable land is held by pattadars. Inamdars pay only quit-rent and road-cess.

There are only about half a dozen pattadars. One family alone owns 97·15 acres of wet and 143·14 acres of dry land.

427 *Rents.*—There are no cultivators who pay a money rent. Everything is paid in kind. The usual arrangement is that the cultivator himself supplies all that is necessary for cultivation, and out of the produce one-half goes to the landowner and the other to the cultivator. There are no other conditions of contract. But when sugarcane is cultivated the landowner gets only one-fourth of the produce.

The whole land revenue comes to Rs. 1,034 7-0, out of which the revenue from the inam lands alone amounts to Rs. 154-3-0.

463 Some of the villagers are engaged in trade side by side with agriculture. Others are potters, dhobis, in addition to being cultivators. Some hold Government posts. Some are contractors.

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426 Money is lent at about 9½ per cent interest per annum. The registered capital is a little over a thousand rupees. There are forty-six members. There is a Secretary, a President, and a Treasurer, all honorary posts.

435 Dry land sells at from Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 per acre; wet land from Rs. 400 to Rs. 800. There has been a rise in prices owing to the increased demands for land and insufficient supply.

426 Under the Mysore Agricultural Loans Act loans nearly to the extent of Rs. 1,200 have been taken up at 4 per cent interest per annum from the Mysore Government.

796 *Festivals.*—A great festival is held at irregular intervals in honour of the goddess Gangamma, the tutelary goddess of the village and its fields and crops. There was a celebration in 1911, and another, prompted by a succession of bad seasons, in 1917. This last was celebrated from the 22nd to the 29th of April. The inhabitants of sixteen villages took part, every family making some contribution, and some 10,000 people congregated in Gownipalli. An image of the goddess is made of rice-flour, copying the silver image in Punganur. It shows only the neck and head, [782] wearing a lofty head-dress. Before this image some 2,000 victims are sacrificed. The first sacrifice is that of a male buffalo; this takes place at midnight, and is followed by that of two or three goats. In the following morning 21 buffaloes are sacrificed. Throughout the festival there is great rejoicing and weird dancing at night, with *kolattam*, short sticks held in the hands and beaten together. Finally the goddess is carried in procession, with drums and cymbals, to the water and thrown in, and there she dissolves. This year there have been good crops and all the tanks are full. [782] The animals sacrificed, in addition to male buffaloes and goats, are rams and cocks. The Brahmans take no part in this festival. The village officers make money out of it, the patel may get Rs. 30 or Rs. 40.

164 *Sanitary condition.*—Malaria is always prevalent. The water for drinking purposes is bad and the village is situated in a low marshy place. Two years ago the village suffered from cholera. There were about fifty deaths. It is free from plague. This year (1916) there was an attack of small-pox, with some deaths. In disease 759 people get themselves treated by native doctors. The nearest [743] hospital is at Srinivaspur, but no advantage is taken of it, as they regard it as most unsatisfactory.

352 All kinds of filth and dirt are allowed to accumulate in the courtyards of the houses. Cattle are housed there only and people sleep near these places. This is to a great extent minimized among the Brahmans.

582 No infant marriages are allowed in Mysore. The bride must be at least eight years old and the bridegroom sixteen years.

[582] All Muhammadans observe purdah.

● 312 Water for drinking purposes is found in abundance. All the Brahmans drink water got out of wells in their backyards. Others drink out of a well about half a furlong from the village and out of the stream aforesaid. Almost all the water is fresh. But it has a tendency to bring on malaria.

871 *Education.*—There is one school, but the accommodation is insufficient. The classes, about seven in number, are held in two

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allowed by the Government for waste lands. An economic enquiry is held by the village officers every year and a report is sent to the Government.

There is scope for improvement on a large scale if only ryots are prepared to start with a large capital and adopt modern methods of agriculture. There does not seem to be any possibility of extending the irrigated lands. Almost all available land has been used up, and brought under cultivation.

The condition of tanks and wells has been improved of late. More wells could be sunk with advantage, but are not sunk owing to lack of funds.

The barbers, dhobis and others are tending to lose their lands owing to their pernicious habit of drinking. People sell land in order to pay off old debts. Loans are given only on mortgage of lands. The chief purchasers are money-lenders.

There has been no emigration. But two Muhammadans are at the front as sepoys. About a hundred belonging to this particular taluk are in the army and most of them are at the field of operations.